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ABSTRACT

This document contains three papers from a symposium on individual learning issues in human resource development (HRD). "Bringing Cross-Cultural Sensitivity to Human Resource Development: An Example from the Classroom" (Robert L. Dilworth) reports on a classroom-based case study in curriculum design for global HRD that emphasizes the importance of preparing HRD professionals for the complexities of cross-cultural settings. "The Analysis of the Effects of Experiential Training on Sojourners' Cross-Cultural Adaptability" (Donna L. Goldstein, Douglas H. Smith) discusses a case-control study in which the hypothesis that cross-cultural training would improve training participants' cross-cultural adaptability was tested in a sample of 42 graduates of a week-long experiential cross-cultural training program and a control group of similar sojourners who received no training. The conceptual and empirical literature that undergirds the use of play in education and training, in particular, the literature exploring the connection between adult play and flow theory, is reviewed in "Play Theory for HRD: A Conceptual Literature Review" (Rebecca "Becke" Adams). (MN)

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ACADEMY OF
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# 1997 Conference Proceedings

## March 6-9, 1997
## Atlanta, GA

35 Individual Learning Issues

**Chair: Rose Mary Wentling, University of Illinois**

Bringing Cross-Cultural Sensitivity to Human Resource Development: an Example from the Classroom

*Robert L. Dilworth, Virginia Commonwealth University*

The Analysis of the Effects of Experiential Training on Sojourners' Cross-Cultural Adaptability

*Donna L. Goldstein, Development Associates International*
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Play Theory for HRD: A Conceptual Literature Review

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# Bringing Cross-Cultural Sensitivity to Human Resource Development: an Example from the Classroom

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*Much is being written about the need for cross-cultural sensitivity. However, it can receive incomplete address in terms of HRD. Cross-cultural awareness can end up being reduced to principles and formulations tha t can oversimplify the realities. This research outlines a classroom based case study in curriculum design for global HRD. It emphasizes the importance of preparing HRD professionals for the complexities of the cross-cultural setting.*

Globalization is increasingly viewed as a critical dimension of Human Resource Development. In 1994, 400 HRD executives were asked to identify trends that will influence workplace learning and performance in the next five years. Most respondents said that the most significant business trend is the global economy and its demands (Training and Development, May 1994). Even given this perceived significance, the degree of emphasis being assigned to this area is highly uneven. Where globalization is emphasized in relation to HRD, it tends to occur without deep sensitivity to cross-cultural differences. A CPC Foundation/RAND Corporation Study (1994) involving research in 16 major US-based corporations and 16 leading academic institutions found only limited emphasis being assigned to global factors.

*Given the emphasis on cross cultural competence as the new human resource requirement for internationally competitive firms, it is surprising that prior cross-cultural experiences (e.g., study abroad programs) and foreign language proficiency received relatively low ratings as predictors of workplace effectiveness.*

There can also be an unawareness of the research in the cross-cultural arena (e.g., Hofstede and Trompenaars). Where there is some knowledge of cross-cultural differences, it can be used in a one-dimensional way. In the area of cross-cultural team building (and this is a key emphasis area as companies become more and more global), the sole need can be viewed as cross-cultural mixing of team composition to provide a complementary fit among cultural characteristics. It can occur without any regard for the cross-cultural make up of the clientele groups to be served or learning style preferences of team members in relation to the tasks involved. In some cases, it becomes a matter of simply viewing the relationship of the national characteristics of the learners to those of the trainers. This sidesteps the significance of understanding the multiple cultural identities involved (e.g., local, culture, corporate culture, religion, class system, role of women in the society).

Data that does exist (e.g., Hofstede's empirically derived dimensions of national culture) can be used in a way that suggests that all members of a national culture relate to the world and others in similar ways. Anyone who has studied the data bases associated with the research of Trompenaars and Hofstede will readily appreciate that to extrapolate the generics of nationality gleaned from such research to all members of a society is specious. It can also be highly misleading. The researchers, themselves, caution against such a generalized application of their research findings.

## Theoretical Framework

Hofstede (1980) posits that "Every person's mental programming is partly unique, partly shared with others" (p. 15). The shared portion he refers to as "collective mental programming." He

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administered a questionnaire to 116,000 people in 50 countries (all IBM employees). It led Hofstede to the identification of four dimensions of culture: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism and Masculinity. Power distance can be defined as the degree of inequity in power between a less powerful individual and a more powerful other (p. 71). Uncertainty avoidance implies uncertainty in the behavior of oneself and of others. Totalitarian ideologies try to avoid this uncertainty (p. 111). Individualism connotes the degree to which the individual is inclined to operate on his or her own (low context) versus adopting a more collectivistic outlook (high context). The final dimension refers to masculinity versus femininity. In this case, Hofstede is defining masculinity as more assertive and femininity as more nurturing.

Hofstede later added a fifth dimension (1993, p. 90), long-term versus short-term orientation. This took an Eastern slant rather than being founded on Western beliefs. This research addressed students in 23 countries. This Confucian-based dimension demonstrates that the most pronounced long-term orientation in the world is resident in China, closely followed by Japan.

The Hofstede research, by virtue of its focus on the employees of one company (i.e., the original four dimensions), is arguably skewed because of the non-representativeness of the sample. It fails to cover the full socio-economic spectrum of the national cultures involved (e.g., India). Its generality also obscures the fact that a nation can have rather distinctive subcultures (e.g., China and South Africa). The Hofstede research is becoming dated given the 15-year time lapse since primary data collection and analysis. Hofstede is in the process (1996) of designing a follow-up study.

Trompenaars' model, covering seven provinces, shares few commonalities with Hofstede's framework. The only precise match is in the area of individualism versus collectivism. The fact that Trompenaars used a survey instrument available only in English (Hofstede's instrument was translated into a variety of languages) tends to create biased results.

No construct answers all needs. While the Hofstede data base is one of only two major data bases in the cross-cultural arena that exists (Trompenaars is the other) and unquestionably useful, it does not take into account individual learning style differences. Learning style preferences of individuals can provide a useful gauge in relation to assigned tasks. As is true of Hofstede's dimensions, you can find a full range of individual learning style differences within the same national culture. The Honey-Mumford Learning Style Questionnaire (LSQ), built essentially on Kolb's research base, can answer a part of that need. The LSQ also provides an index to how given individuals communicate and interact with their world. This can be a useful gauge in determining how to engineer group composition to avoid over concentration of like styles and provide for a mix of complementary styles. The research by Michael Hoppe (1990) is instructive in that it uses a survey instrument, developed with Hofstede's knowledge and support, that incorporates the Kolb Learning Style preferences into questionnaire design in treating cross-cultural differences and learning style preferences in juxtaposition.

**Research Questions**

1. Is there a way to teach HRD professionals the importance of using and incorporating multiple reference points in arriving at a reasonably accurate cross-cultural perspective in given situations?

2. How can you better isolate *specific* cultural characteristics of an individual in relationship to Hofstede's dimensions without defaulting to the global Hofstede outcomes (1980) that may not properly type classify an individual?

3. How can you realistically replicate such challenges in educating graduate level HRD students (Masters and Ph.D.) to the intricacies of cross-cultural and learning style differences?

4. What patterns can be isolated that show linkage between the cross-cultural dimensions and learning style preferences?

**Methodology**

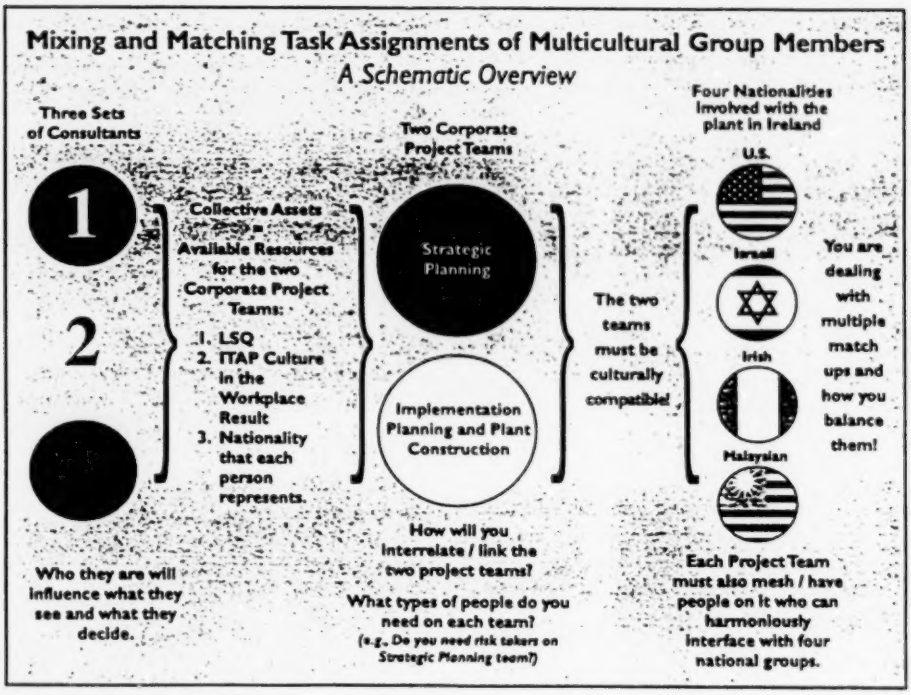
Thirteen graduate students, four of them pursuing doctorates, enrolled in a Global HRD Course at Virginia Commonwealth University, served as the test group for a new curriculum model. Three of the participants were international students (England, South Africa, China). At the beginning of the semester, each student completed a Honey-Mumford Learning Style Questionnaire (LSQ) and a Culture in the Workplace (CW) survey instrument developed by ITAP International at Princeton, New Jersey. The ITAP Questionnaire contains 24 questions and has been in use since 1989. It, in effect, replicates the questionnaire used by Hofstede. It was developed with his knowledge and support.

Results of the CW survey were provided to the class in a way that plotted results three ways: (a) as if the student were a nation; (b) as a member of the class (profiled as if it were a nation); and, (c) in relationship to the countries of Japan, Germany, Brazil, Sweden, South Africa and the United States (the professor's choice in order to show wide contrasts).

Students were also administered the LSQ. It plotted students versus the four basic learning style preferences (Activist, Reflector, Theorist or Pragmatist).

Students were assigned to one of three "action learning sets" in order to blend their learning style preferences and CW survey derived characteristics in a way that could draw strength from diversity. They were later given a "Team Exercise in Mixing and Matching Task Assignments of Multicultural Group Members." This was a highly complex exercise designed to bring together primary considerations in determining the best way to mix and match cross-cultural participants and their learning styles in a team exercise.

This role play centered on the construction of a world-class semi-conductor plant in Ireland. Those to operate the plant on completion were to come from Ireland, Israel, Malaysia and the United States. Each action learning set was to begin by taking the class assets (actual people), together with their CW survey results, learning style preferences and designated country (each student was assigned a nation to "adopt" and learn about from an HRD perspective during the semester).


Mixing and Matching Task Assignments of Multicultural Group Members
A Schematic Overview
Three Sets of Consultants
1
2
Collective Assets = Available Resources for the two Corporate Project Teams:
1. LSQ
2. ITAP Culture in the Workplace Result
3. Nationality that each person represents.
Who they are will influence what they see and what they decide.
Two Corporate Project Teams
Strategic Planning
Implementation Planning and Plant Construction
How will you interrelate / link the two project teams?
What types of people do you need on each team?
(e.g., Do you need risk takers on Strategic Planning team?)
The two teams must be culturally compatible!
Four Nationalities Involved with the plant in Ireland
U.S.
Israeli
Irish
Malaysian
You are dealing with multiple match ups and how you balance them!
Each Project Team must also mesh / have people on it who can harmoniously interface with four national groups.

As a result of their set assessment, they were to assign individuals to one of two project teams (Strategic Planning and Implementation). The complexity of the challenge given to the students can be seen in the following diagram.

The students needed to give particular attention to how their own predilections within the action learning set to which they were assigned might influence/filter how they went about assigning assets to the two project teams.

It stressed the criticality of self-awareness as the first step to cross-cultural sensitivity.

Other subtleties included the need to not only consider compatibility within the task forces but between them and in relation to clientele groups. The problem solving model was designed to show the need for *multiple matching and blending* when dealing with the creation of high performance cross-cultural teams.

In a similar vein, students were given several other realistic scenarios to deal with during the course:

1. Euro-Disney and the problems related to its development in France. This real life example gave students an opportunity to probe the planning process used to implement the Euro-Disney concept and its cross-cultural sensitivity (and lack thereof). Students also pulled together current material on Euro-Disney from the World Wide Web, thus learning just how much material is available in dealing with companies and cross-cultural issues.

2. Students prepared a plan for expatriation and repatriation as Siemens Corporation engages in a joint venture with Motorola in Richmond, Virginia. Contact was made with the Siemens-Motorola HR team in determining the amount of employee exchange to occur. Student Action Learning Sets presented their expatriation/repatriation plans as if to the top leadership of these companies.

3. The final course exercise asked students to role play as members of a vender firm offering global HRD services. They were to respond to a request for proposal by McKinsey Inc. as the general contractor/consultant firm to a consortium of international interests gearing up to establish a series of plants in the Eastern part of Europe (Romania, Poland and the Eastern part of Germany). These plants were to produce anti-pollution and environmental clean up related products. Collaborators in the enterprise from the standpoint of technology included companies in Norway, Belgium, Switzerland and the United States. Primary investment capital came from Kuwait, with Siemens of Germany holding the major contract for plant development. Students were expected to balance a variety of factors, advise on the best way to deal with negotiations and determine how and where to conduct the necessary training programs.

Each student participated in an oral presentation to the professor as a member of an action learning set. The professor played the role of CEO of the HR firm. They also submitted individual draft memoranda to the CEO of the firm as a recommended response to the McKinsey Inc. request for proposal.

**Results and Conclusions**

One objective of the main core exercise described was to underscore the danger of type classifying individuals based on their nationality (Hofstede's Dimensions), since individuals within a culture can fall anywhere along the continua. You can have a person who is highly individualistic as part of a collectivistic culture. This was clearly dramatized even though the class sample is too small to serve as a true measure. It became very clear that if task force assignment decisions in the exercise had been left to the global national index values of the basic Hofstede research that the result would have frequently conveyed the individual characteristics inaccurately. For example, the Hofstede value for masculinity (called achievement in the ITAP CW Questionnaire) in the United States is 62. The higher the value the more task focus as opposed to relationship orientation is involved. The overall class index value based on the CW survey was 16 on this dimension (by comparison, Sweden is the most feminine country in the world based on the Hofstede research with a value of 4). The largest number of class members were clustered at an index value of 10. In other words, this group of students has a relationship

orientation far removed from what the Hofstede research assigns as an index value for the United States. Therefore, when considering this group of individuals in relationship to a real world situation similar to the exercise, team assignments based on Hofstede's basic research results would have been far off the mark.

There was a closer correlation between the US value on power distance and the class result. On the other hand, the class tended to be even less risk adverse than Hofstede's value for the United States. The individualism results for the class were below the Hofstede result, albeit marginally in some cases. Therefore, the class is more willing to take risks and more collectivistic (high context) than what Hofstede's research attributes to the United States.

Even though the number of international students was small, the results were rather interesting. It showed again the danger of reflexively assigning the overall Hofstede research results for a national culture to specific members of that culture. The Chinese student was far removed from Hofstede's index values for China, especially in terms of uncertainty avoidance. The British student was far off the mark in masculinity, while closely matching with the basic Hofstede dimensions of power distance and individualism for the United Kingdom. The South African was significantly different from Hofstede's dimensions for her country in all areas. It may be that students from other countries are different than the index values arrived at by Hofstede in part because of the act of self-selection in pursuing an overseas educational experience. A student from China, for example, may turn out to be less risk adverse by nature than is characteristic of other Chinese. It can take an act of personal courage to leave a strong family oriented culture to pursue studies in an unfamiliar cultural environment.

In terms of learning style preferences, the students were equally divided between strong activists and strong reflectors, and that was one factor in determining action learning set assignments. A number of students fell in the moderate range, meaning that they probably have the ability to swing into either an activistic or reflective mode as circumstances require.

Exercise results varied by action learning set, but there were also similar threads of logic running through their determinations. One set invited members of the class to validate their task force assignments (e.g., did they feel comfortable being assigned to the Strategic Planning Task Force rather than the Implementation Task Force?) Only one student crossed over to the other team. The point brought home here is that you should draw on *direct* knowledge where it is possible rather than simply tabulating index values in arriving at cross-cultural team assignments. The students had arrived at this judgment as a result of their own deliberations during exercise play.

In terms of correlation between CW survey results and LSQ results, a few tentative linkages could be identified in this specific group of students. Low theorists had generally lower certainty scores. Low pragmatists had higher individualism scores. Strong reflectors had higher certainty scores and low reflectors had lower certainty scores. No relationship of reflection to individualism or achievement (masculinity) was evident. The value of using both LSQ and CW survey results for team assignments proved useful as perceived by student participants.

As already indicated, students were given several complex cross-cultural scenarios to work through. As the semester progressed, the students expressed growing confidence in their ability to make wise choices. In dialogue with well known authorities on global HRD, either during their visit to the classroom or over a speaker phone, students expressed a feeling of broad familiarity with the terminology and critical factors to be considered in global HRD. The requirement to deal with real world challenges in an action learning context was identified by the students as the most valuable aspect of the course. Some of the actual written student comments in providing feedback at course completion suggest the strength of this type classroom format in teaching global HRD.

1. The presentations in this class have turned out to be quite different from those I've seen in other classes. The students were required to read fast, think fast, and act fast as an individual and as a group; decision making skills have proved important. . . . this course has stimulated in me an eagerness to learn more, to act, and to become a more flexible, open-minded and capable person. It has also instilled more confidence in me.

2. I can now say that in my entire academic career I have never been quite so challenged. I honestly had trouble keeping up. I'm certainly happy I had this experience, since it is such useful information in terms of knowledge gained and skills practiced.

3. This course was a valuable learning experience. It forced me to critically think about many diverse issues during the span of the course, I was challenged to reflect on many of the concepts that I take for granted. . . gaining exposure to other perspectives was extremely valuable. Team members often took completely different paths to reach the desired objective.

4. I felt most engaged in the learning experience during two of the action learning set projects, including mix and match (The Ireland scenario). The experiences allowed me to explore my strengths and weaknesses, investigate my cultural perceptions and biases, utilize my team skills, as well as learn the various levels, components, and issues involved in addressing global HRD concerns within an organization or corporate expansion . . . certainly one of the major teaching points of this class I have integrated into my own experiences is the idea that not everything that should be learned can be learned before one works in another culture.

5. Throughout the course students were required to work in small groups. . . . because students worked together on several group projects, they were able to bond.

6. This course engaged me constantly from the beginning. . . . I felt as if this class gave me a fantastic opportunity to learn more about the world and its various cultures . . . my learning in this course was vast and ran the spectrum of group activity learning to individual exploration.

7. I believe that as a result of taking this course I will be better prepared than any of my other countrymen to deal with any repatriation issues that I will have to face upon my re-entry into (country).

8. I really got to know my classmates, since we met quite frequently, working on group projects and I got to talk to people all over the world researching my final paper.

9. I have had some fantastic conversations with people from other countries. I have opened up the box and been able to see outside the world I grew up in . . . another thing I have identified as an incredible learning experience during the course can be identified by the word stretch". I have discovered the excitement and benefits of stretching outside of my well-ordered, little, left-brained world into the world of "taking risks".

**How this Research Contributes to New Knowledge in HRD**

With all the evidence pointing to the importance of globalization to HRD, we are still embryonic in applying knowledge of cross-cultural differences. The research base itself is thin, and the two major researchers in the field thus far (Hofstede and Trompenaars) do not share a common modality. In contacts with some leading corporations, the researcher found that there was no well defined HRD strategy for dealing with cross-cultural sensitivity in determining the composition of cross-cultural teams.

This particular research is significant because it underscores three essential dimensions that relate to HRD in cross-cultural settings: (1) You cannot safely assign global values to individuals (Hofstede's research). You need a *direct* index to the individual; (2) It is *not* a case of considering just cross-cultural compatibilities. You must also index to external clientele groups and their cross-cultural composition. It is a case of matching multiple identities. It can be like a Rubric's cube. As obvious as this may seem, mixing of multiple identities is frequently not a part of the equation; and, (3) We need more research around the relationship of cross-cultural characteristics to learning style preferences. This research and the research by Hoppe (1990) suggests that this is fertile ground for research inquiry. The conflicting modalities of Hofstede and Trompenaars, while useful, can be extremely misleading when used in isolation and in the absence of *direct* knowledge of the individuals involved.

Finally, this classroom based case study points to the need to incorporate real world challenges in curriculum design. Global HRD is best taught by giving the students "hands-on" experience in dealing with realistic scenarios. Associated small group decision making activity, particularly in a multi-cultural classroom provides students a direct awareness of the complexities on dealing with HRD in a cross-cultural setting.

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# The Analysis of the Effects of Experiential Training on Sojourners' Cross-Cultural Adaptability

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*This study compared the cross-cultural adaptability of international student sojourners who received cross-cultural training with those who received no training. The treatment group included 42 graduates of a weeklong experiential crosscultural training program at the Meridian International Center, called* Discover the United States. *The control group of 39 similar sojourners, received no training. The hypothesis was that Meridian program participants would demonstrate greater cross-cultural adaptability than a similar control group, as measured by the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI).*

## Background of the Problem

The movement of people across national and cultural boundaries is more active than ever before. Each year millions around the world relocate from country to country (Kim and Gudykunst, 1988). The number of foreign students attending schools in the United States has increased to a record of over 407,000 in 1990 and is rising steadily. Sweeping political, economic, social and technological changes have created a world where instantaneous communication is not only possible, but essential. At the same time businesses worldwide have been forced to reevaluate their products and markets from an increasingly global perspective. This has required thousands of staff persons and managers from countries worldwide to relocate each year (Blakeslee, 1991). Increased internationalization has led to the need for greater interpersonal cross-cultural contact and effectiveness.

It appears, however, that many of these attempts at cross-cultural interactions do not succeed. Studies of cross-cultural negotiations find cross-cultural differences at the heart of many business failures (Black, 1988). It has been estimated that between 16 and 40 percent of all expatriate managers who are given foreign assignments end these assignments early because of their inability to adjust to the foreign environment, or because of their poor performance (Tung, 1981; Black, 1988). In Saudi Arabia, Storti, (1990, p.xiv) reports that an average of 68 percent of those Americans who have no cultural training fail to complete their contracts. As high as 50 percent of those who do not return early function at a low level of effectiveness (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). Yet, governments, corporations and educational institutions spend enormous amounts each year to create and maintain global connections. Moreover, studies by Copeland and Griggs, Harris and Moran, and Misa and Fabriacatore, as summarized by Black and Mendenhall (1990, p.114) show "the cost of a failed expatriate assignment is $50,000 to $150,000." The direct costs to U.S. firms of failed expatriate assignments has been estimated by Copeland and Griggs (1985) at over $2 billion per year. Added to this are the indirect costs of failed and missed opportunities, poor public relations and intercultural mistrust.

Cross-cultural training has long been advocated as a means of facilitating successful cross-cultural interactions and reducing culture shock (Brislin, 1981; Harris & Moran, 1979; Tung,1981; Grove,1989). Yet only 30 percent of U.S. managers sent on overseas assignments receive even the most cursory of cross-cultural training prior to their departure (Black & Mendenhall,1990). For student sojourners at some institutions, the percentage may be even less.

While cross-cultural training is not widely conducted for U.S. citizens working and studying overseas, the availability of programs for people coming to the U.S. is available, but the impact is questionable. An informal telephone survey by one of the researchers (Goldstein, 1992) of the ten colleges and universities with the largest foreign student populations in the United States indicate major differences in the ways that cross-cultural orientation/training for foreign students is addressed.

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One university, with over 5,000 international students, appears to devote about 30 minutes to the topic. Another university holds a weeklong orientation each fall devoted exclusively to cross-cultural issues. In both cases about 80% of the eligible population attends the training which is available. The survey also indicated that tens of thousands of student sojourners receive little or no cross-cultural training.

It seems clear that cross-cultural training is not widely utilized or available in either the corporate or academic environments. While not fully understood, several explanations can be posited. There may be a lack of appreciation for the value of, or need for cross-cultural training. It may be difficult for an manager or student who has never lived or studied abroad to empathize with the disorientation and distress which occurs when one has entered a new culture. Tung, (1982) suggests the prevalent attitude that the training is perceived to be ineffective. Some schools focus primarily on improving the speaking and writing skills of foreign students. Certainly lack of knowledge or staff, and budgetary or time constraints could also be cited.

In this study the potential effects of cross-cultural training were studied by examining the week-long program *Discover the United States* at the Meridian International Center in Washington, D.C. (formerly the Washington International Center). This program, for participants from around the world, utilizes in various ways each of the five training approaches in Tung's (1982) typology. These include area studies, culture assimilators, language preparation, sensitivity training, and field experiences. It also utilizes the film/discussion approach. Rather than the lecture approach, still common in much cross-cultural training, this in-depth, multidimensional approach appeals to a variety of learning and personality styles.

The impact of the training was measured by the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI), developed by Kelley & Meyers (1987). This self administered inventory provided individual scores in four dimensions: Emotional Resilience, Flexibility/ Openness, Perceptual Acuity, and Personal Autonomy. This study also sought to determine whether the demographic variables of country of origin or gender influenced the cross-cultural adaptability of student sojourners.

## Research Questions

The objectives of this research were to identify the impact of cross-cultural training on adaptability, and determine the influence of demographic variables on cross-cultural training and adaptability. Three research questions formed the basis of the study. First, does in-depth experiential cross-cultural training improve cross-cultural adaptability, as measured by the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI)? In order to determine this, participants in an in-depth cross cultural training experience were compared to two separate groups - a control group made up of similar individuals, and an assessment of the scores of the international students and sojourners used by Kelley and Meyers in developing the CCAI. Second, do the specific demographic variables of country of origin and gender affect cross-cultural adaptability? This was assessed by comparing the CCAI scores of all study participants to determine whether country of origin or gender affected cross-cultural adaptability. Third, since the program is taught by a variety of instructors, are there any major differences each week in the program format which might affect the cross-cultural adaptability of participants? This was explored through a format analysis of four separate weeks of training.

## Review of the Literature

The experience of the cross-cultural sojourner has only been discussed extensively in the academic literature since the early sixties. Oberg's (1960) early description of the phenomenon of culture shock has become a classic for disciplines having interest in the sojourner's experience. Storti (1990) notes, though, that it has been the topic of popular culture for centuries, i.e., witness the tales of Rudyard Kipling, Issac Dinassen, D. H. Lawrence, and Mark Twain.

It has been suggested that cross-cultural research focusing on cross-cultural international human resource management is in a pre-paradigm state (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). A review conducted by Adler (1983) of articles in 24 top management journals revealed that less than one percent dealt with cross-cultural issues. Between 1984 and 1988 only nine percent of the articles in the major

international business journals dealt with international human resource issues, and none were theory building (Black & Mendenhall, 1990).

Regarding intercultural training and education, Casse (1979) notes that intercultural trainers and individuals working in international organizations should have four key skills. They should be able to understand the cultural meaning of their behavior, empathize with others and understand their behavior using their own cultural frame of reference, recognize the impact of their behavior on others, and adjust to the specific cross-cultural situations in which they are involved (p.252).

Paige (1986) has also addressed twelve characteristics which make for an effective and competent cross-cultural trainer. These include tolerance for ambiguity, cognitive and behavioral flexibility, personal self-awareness, strong personal identity, cultural self-awareness, patience, enthusiasm and commitment, interpersonal sensitivity, tolerance of differences, openness to new experiences and people, empathy, sense of humility, and sense of humor. Though targeted to trainers, these characteristics are taken directly from the literature on cross cultural adjustment, and were later seen to relate closely to Kelley and Meyers' (1987) work in cross-cultural adaptability.

The focus of cross cultural orientation training tends to be on specific items and concepts the participants will need to know to live and adapt effectively in the new culture. For example, in Aramco Oil Corporation's orientation program for staff who will be moving to Saudi Arabia, explanations of perceptions such as time are given in the sequence, "This is how you would do something, this is how a Saudi Arabian would do it, and this is why" (Lee, 1983, p. 22). The Meridian International Center's "Discover the United States" program encompasses both training (skills development) and orientation (cultural sensitivity). One of its key goals is to help participants understand USAmerican values. It also imparts many practical suggestions for interacting with others and living and studying in the United States.

In summary, since cross-cultural migration, international business and scholarship are likely to continue to increase, research must be conducted to examine the experience of sojourners. There are a number of approaches which may be utilized to assist the sojourner in adapting to a new culture. These range from formal college courses and in-depth training programs to briefings and self-study suggestions. The decision regarding which options to use will likely be based on the goals, values, intercultural expertise and budgetary/time constraints of the institution or department.

## The CCAI

The primary instrument utilized in this study was the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI), developed by Kelley and Meyers (1991). Of the available instruments, it appeared to most closely match the skills and attitudes provided in the *Discover the United States* program. Each statement on the CCAI represents one of four dimensions measured by the inventory in separate scales: emotional resilience, flexibility/openness, perceptual acuity, and personal autonomy. To complete the inventory, answers are circled on a scoring sheet with six options ranging from definitely true to definitely not true (e.g., "I believe I could live a fulfilling life in another culture." ).

Since the instrument was first developed by Kelley and Meyers in 1987 it has undergone two revisions. According to Kelley and Meyers (1991, p.5) the CCAI was designed to be used in cross-cultural training to help people to: (1) better understand what we know is important in living and working effectively among those of other cultures (based on the research literature), and (2) learn useful information about themselves that can guide them in the development of cross -cultural abilities and skills. The CCAI was chosen as the measurement for this study for four key reasons. First, statistically the CCAI is a reliable and valid instrument. The instrument has a high overall reliability (.90), and was normed on a large sample population of 653 individuals, including 129 international students and sojourners from 38 countries who were quite similar to the sample population of this study. The individual scale reliability (standardized alpha) measures were: Emotional resilience (ER, 18 items), .90; flexibility/openness (FO, 15 items), .82; perceptual acuity (PA, 10 items), .78; personal autonomy (PA, 7 items), .68; total score (49 items),.90.

The second reason for choosing the CCAI was that, though the concept of cross-cultural "adaptability" (as opposed to adjustment) is fairly recent in the literature, the instrument has a strong theoretical base and is well grounded in the state-of-the-art of cross cultural theory and practice. Third,

in a series of interviews conducted by the researcher with seven senior interculturalists, including Margaret Pusch, author of, "Multicultural Education; a Cross-cultural Training Approach" (1981), the CCAI was suggested as the most valid, well researched and viable instrument for the assessment of cross-cultural effectiveness. Fourth, the instrument is relatively easy to administer by mail, and with its scoring system provides four clear and well documented criteria upon which individual subjects and groups can be assessed and compared. It also had the advantage of offering an incentive to study participants with the individualized profile provided. In sum, the author and the advisors to this study were confident that the CCAI was the most appropriate instrument to be utilized in this study.

**Methodology**

The study compared two similar groups of student sojourners who completed the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI, (Kelley & Meyers, 1989). The treatment group of 42 individuals attended the week-long intercultural training and orientation program *Discover the United States* at the Meridian International Center in one program year (September to September). The sample population had to meet the following criteria: (1) Had completed the entire "Discover the United States" training, (2) planned to stay in the United States for a minimum of one year, and (3) Listed "study" as their primary reason for coming to the United States.

A control group of 39 individuals who had received little or no training upon arrival to the United States were matched as closely as possible to the treatment group. The primary criteria for matching included gender, country of origin and arrival date in the United States. Age and education were secondary considerations (Refer to Table 1). Sojourners from either group who had lived in the United States for three months or more on a prior visit were disqualified, as this might give them an adaptability advantage over other sojourners (Klineberg and Hull,1979).

Table 1
Demographic Composition of Treatment and Control Groups by Gender

| | Treatment | | Control | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Female | 12 | 28.6 | 9 | 23.1 |
| Male | 30 | 71.4 | 27 | 69.2 |
| Unknown | 0 | 0 | 3 | 7.7 |
| Total | 42 | 100.0 | 39 | 100.0 |

Nearly all of the participants in the study, both experimental and control, were graduate students sponsored by the U. S. Agency for International Development (U.S.A.I.D.) or a similar agency. They were established professionals in business, government or academia, with an average age in the early thirties. They were highly educated, e.g., five physicians, two attorneys, and two others with advanced degrees.

The design, with a total sample size of 81 student sojourners, allowed for two different sets of comparisons. First, comparison of the treatment and control group compared the mean scores of the CCAI for each group. Second, the treatment group scores were also compared as a group to the standard scores for international students, as measured by the CCAI, to determine the relationship of the treatment group for this study with the norming group for the CCAI.

The study was conducted in four phases. The "pre-study" phase included all activities related to the identification and recruitment of the treatment group, and a pilot study of the administration of the CCAI to identify any possible difficulties with test administration, language or scoring. The second phase included the mailing of the CCAI, including a supplemental seven question attitudinal survey, to the treatment and control groups. In phase three the data were tabulated. The participants were mailed an interpretation of their individual survey results. Phase four consisted of a statistical analyses of the accumulated data, and the reporting of the findings to the participating agencies and organizations.

**Data Analysis**

The primary quantitative data for this study consisted of the individual and group scores on the four components of the CCAI. For the comparative analysis of the CCAI data, significance tests of correlation and t tests for independent sample groups were conducted between the treatment and control groups. Testing the treatment group versus the control group gave significant results in each of the four dimensions of cross-cultural adaptability at the .05 level of significance. This was determined by utilizing the t-test for two independent sample groups (refer to Table 2).

Table 2
CCAI Data for Treatment and Control Groups

| CCAI Scales | Treatment (n=42) Mean | SD | Control (n=39) Mean | SD | T-Statis. | P-Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 231.95 | 21.06 | 216.87 | 16.43 | -3.57 | .0006** |
| Emotional Resilience | 82.57 | 9.89 | 77.77 | 7.61 | -2.44 | .0171* |
| Flexibility Openness | 68.05 | 7.80 | 62.77 | 6.88 | -3.22 | .0019** |
| Perceptual Acuity | 48.40 | 5.14 | 45.82 | 4.54 | -2.39 | .0192* |
| Personal Autonomy | 32.93 | 5.08 | 30.51 | 4.70 | -2.22 | .0295* |

* significant at $p < .05$ ** significant at $p < .01$

As illustrated in Table 2, for emotional resiliency (ER), the treatment mean (82.57) was significantly higher ($p < .05$) than the control mean (77.77). For flexibility/ openness (FO), the treatment mean (68.05) was significantly higher ($p < .01$) than the control mean (62.77). For perceptual acuity (PAC), the treatment mean (48.40) was significantly higher ($p < .05$) than the control mean (45.82). For personal autonomy (PA), the treatment mean (32.93) was also significantly higher ($p < .05$) than the control mean (30.51).

Thus, in comparing the cross-cultural adaptability of the treatment group to a similar control group, the results indicate that the treatment group was significantly higher. Each comparison of cross-cultural adaptability includes four scales, which provide a total of eight opportunities for comparison of difference. In each of the eight comparisons, the treatment group's scores were significantly higher than the control, and three of these were highly significant ($p < .01$). There was also a highly significant difference in total combined mean scores on all four dimensions.

In a causal-comparative analysis, the interpretation of findings requires some caution (Gay, 1987). It was difficult to ascertain definitively that the differences in the dependent variable, or CCAI scores were actually caused by the independent variable, training or no training. Ex post facto research attempts to determine the cause of, or reason for existing differences which, in this case are scores on the CCAI. Because of the careful matching and sample selection procedures, a primary, but not the only, difference between the members of the two groups was the presence or absence of the training.

It is not possible to determine exactly what aspects of the Meridian training are responsible for the significantly higher levels of cross-cultural adaptability that participants demonstrated over the control group and the test standard. Six possible explanations can be given. First, The program provides opportunities for participants to interact with their new environment and one another. Each interacts with other newly arrived sojourners, as well as host nationals, both staff and volunteers. This

safe and friendly environment may increase emotional resilience and perceptual acuity and assist the sojourner in accurately predicting and understanding the behavior of people in the United States. It also may increase personal autonomy by serving as a starting point for the creation of shared networks (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1988), and encourage participants to interact with local people during their sojourn (Klineberg & Hull, 1979).

Second, the program increases the participants' knowledge of the host culture, thereby reducing their anxiety (Gudykunst and Hammer, 1988). Throughout the week-long program participants are given specific examples of what to expect in school, work and social settings. A variety of techniques, such as role plays and films help prepare participants to succeed in the new culture. These experiences can increase the sojourners self-confidence, and encourage them to become more flexible and open as they begin the process of adapting to their new environment.

Third, numerous opportunities to compare their lifestyles and values with each other, with the USAmerican culture might help the participants develop more personal autonomy. Fourth, the program encourages independent thinking and action, allowing the sojourners to achieve several small successes in the new culture. These successes may increase emotional resilience and produce a willingness to engage in further risk-taking in the placement community.

Fifth, many of the week's activities focus on the development of empathy for others, (in this case USAmericans) who are different. Interviews and interaction with classmates, volunteers, staff members and "people on the street" may also assist in developing better communication skills, heightening perceptual acuity and creating empathy. Bennett (1986) describes empathy as the most common form of adaptation, and these experiences may improve perceptual acuity.

Sixth, the experiential training approach appears to prepare participants for specific situations, such as classroom and dating etiquette. They are also exposed to attitudes they may face in the United States, among them being such factors as USAmericans' materialism, independence, and perceived need for privacy. It appears to equip them with skills and attitudes which are reflected in greater emotional resilience, flexibility/ openness, perceptual acuity and personal autonomy in the new culture.

**Summary and Conclusions**

This study sought to determine whether an in-depth cross-cultural training experience would affect the cross-cultural adaptability of student sojourners. It also assessed several components of a well established cross-cultural training program. Following are four conclusions based on the quantitative data and on the qualitative, descriptive analyses summarized on the preceding pages.

1. Student sojourners who attend the weeklong *Discover the United States* program provided by the Meridian International Center upon arrival to this country exhibit greater cross-cultural adaptability than a similar group of students who did not attend the training. This relationship is demonstrated by the significantly higher scores on the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) of the program's graduates in every dimension of cross-cultural adaptability, including emotional resilience, flexibility/openness, perceptual acuity and personal autonomy.

2. Graduates of the program also appear to exhibit significantly greater cross-cultural adaptability than international student sojourners in general. This is demonstrated by comparing CCAI scores of graduates with those of the large group of well educated international sojourners who participated in developing the CCAI test standard. Again, graduates of the Meridian program scored significantly higher in every dimension of cross-cultural adaptability.

3. The treatment group appeared to gain in the dimensions of emotional resilience and flexibility/openness. In both comparisons of the four cross-cultural dimensions, these two were the highest scores; iIn three of the four cases they were significant at $p < .01$. These gains can perhaps be attributed to the program's experiential and interactive format which requires participants to actively assess and revise their perspectives about themselves and how to succeed in the new culture . It also helps prepare them in a proactive way for the inevitability of the symptoms of culture shock and the challenges they are likely to face.

4. There was no difference in cross-cultural adaptability, as measured by the CCAI between males and females, or by country of origin. This was demonstrated by an analysis of variance (ANOVA) which shows no difference between scores based on these variables. Again, the only significance

demonstrated was between the treatment and control groups, as described above.

As indicated by these data, the *Discovering the United States* program appears to do a very good job of preparing participants to study and live in a new culture by developing the key skills of emotional resiliency, flexibility/openness, perceptual acuity, and personal autonomy. According to Kelley and Meyers (1991) these skills are the major determinants of success when crossing cultures. The program also helps participants better understand the values and lifestyles of USAmericans and provides concrete information and experiences which aid in adapting to and enjoying university life in the United States.

The difficulties that sojourners face living, studying or working in a new culture have been well documented. This study demonstrates that an in-depth cross-cultural training experience can be quite helpful in developing both skills and attitudes necessary for success.

**Recommendations**

The findings and conclusions of this study suggest that in the interest of enhancing the experience of sojourners in foreign countries and promoting greater cross-cultural adaptability, the following recommendations be considered. First, since the study has demonstrated the value of in-depth experiential programs such as *Discover the United States*, cross-cultural training should be considered a priority for organizations which invest in the education and training of international managers and sojourners. Such training has been demonstrated to benefit graduates by assisting them to become more emotionally resilient, flexible and open, perceptually acute, and autonomous than similar persons lacking such training.

Second, organizations and schools that do not have an in-depth cross-cultural training program should consider developing and implementing a more comprehensive approach. This can be provided using in-house resources, or with the assistance of external consultants. An important step in this process would be to interview current international sojourners about their experiences in the host country and organization.

Third, in order to provide the most effective study or work experience for sojourners, a variety of opportunities such as pre-departure training, orientation and training upon arrival in the new culture, and ongoing training should be made available by host and sponsoring organizations. These experiences should be coordinated and build on previous learnings and experiences to provide reinforcement and ensure maximum effectiveness.

Fourth, organizations and schools should provide ongoing social and educational opportunities which allow the sojourners to interact with other sojourners and natives of the host country. This is also likely to increase social skills and cross-cultural adaptability.

Fifth, organizations with international managers, students, and staff should provide cultural awareness trair ing for all those who will interact with sojourners. Certainly this type of training is important to supervisors and administrators, and college and university faculty, but also to all staff. Having the opportunity to interact with people who are cognizant of cultural differences and empathetic to the experience of crossing cultures may help sojourners to succeed in the new environment.

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# Play Theory for HRD: A Conceptual Literature Review

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*The purpose of this paper is to review the conceptual and empirical literature that undergirds the use of play in education and training. The connection between adult play and flow theory is explored and the creative personality is also examined.*

Educators must be more creative than ever to meet the demands of changing employee work schedules. Play is a fun and interactive way to teach and learn. Games, one type of play, are popular among participants and trainers alike. However, their use among educators is limited. Training's 1996 Industry Report indicates that only 39% of companies with 100 employees or more are currently using games or simulations to teach.

Knowles (1978) proposed that the adult learner must be actively involved in the learning experience for an optimum transfer of knowledge to take place. Knowles' theory has been supported by studies that show that skills are retained better with practice and re-testing and when the teaching strategy actively involves the learner as a participant (Bowen, 1987; Klein & Fleck, 1990; Randel, Morris, Wetzel, & Whitehill, 1992; Whiteley & Faria, 1989). Furthermore, Knowles (1978) stated that the learning environment must be comfortable and exciting to the learner. This includes a variety of stimulations that appeal to many of the learner's senses, including the visual, auditory, and kinesthetic senses.

Tallman and Holt (1987) point out that "most programmers do not emphasize the transfer factor, but merely focus on program delivery. That is, what happens after the program" (p.15). Zemke and Gunkler (1985) note that "the quality of the original training will play a large role in how much transfer of training occurs" (p. 49). Using a list of dissatisfactions with conferences compiled by Finkel (1985), Tallman and Holt (1987) produced a listing of factors to consider to adjust program design. Two of these factors are especially relevant to instructional methods: design more modules that engage active audience participation and alter methods of presentations.

Tallman and Holt (1987) propose that a variety of teaching methods, particularly active learning, aids in the transfer of skills and knowledge. It is noted that research is slim but adult educators opt for active learning techniques because these techniques are believed to be more effective. The most common and overused method, lecture, has not been found to be effective in learner retention of material or subsequent transfer of learning. Tallman and Holt warn that trainers must strive to not let lectures dominate a program. Participants should be allowed time to be actively involved in the learning process through a variety of methods or problem-solving techniques. They point out that active learning can equip the learner with necessary skills to function more effectively on the job. Frequent practice provided helps the participant to "overlearn" the new skills so it becomes a regular part of the person's behavior.

One way to actively engage learners is to use play in training and development programs. But why don't trainers play more? Perhaps it is because the word "play" can invoke many misconceptions. Many think that play is only for young children. Play seems to be something that you should give up when you grow up (Provost, 1990). Suggesting that an adult is playing is risky business. Work is respectable, but play is not because play is easy (Rieber, 1996). These misconceptions are unfortunate because research on children and adults' play in anthropology, psychology, and education indicates that play is an important mediator for learning and socialization throughout life (Blanchard & Cheska, 1985; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Provost, 1990; Yawkey & Pellegrini, 1984).

Playfulness (Webster & Martocchio, 1992; Miller, 1973) and flow (Webster, Trevion & Ryan, 1993) have been found to relate to learning. Rieber (1996) describes that play is difficult to define but we all know when we see it or experience it. It is generally defined as having four

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attributes: it is voluntary, it is intrinsically motivating, it involves some level of active engagement, and it is distinct from other behavior by having a make-believe quality (Blanchard & Cheska, 1985; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Pelligrini, 1985; Pelligrini & Smith, 1993; Yawkey & Pelligrini, 1984).

Erikson (1972) suggested that the working adult views play as recreation, and as a separation from limitations occurring at work. It is common for people to define play as the opposite of work but this is misleading (Rieber, 1996). Blanchard and Cheska (1985) propose that work has the potential to be considered play and it becomes play when the job is so satisfying that getting paid is secondary.

Inspired mostly by the work of Sutton-Smith, current theories of play are generally organized around four themes: play as progress, play as power, play as fantasy, and play as self (Pelligrini, 1995). Play as progress concerns the belief that the purpose of play is to learn something useful. Play as power refers to contests or competitions in which winners and losers are declared. Play as fantasy refers to play's role in liberating the mind to engage in creative and imaginative thinking. Play as self values play's role as a way to achieve optimal life experiences. It is this last theme that is most focused on intrinsic worth of an experience (Rieber, 1996).

Csikszentmihalyi (1977) suggests that too often adult play has been construed in terms of children's play. He points out that adult organisms decrease their play and essentially play stops. The question remains "What happens to play in adulthood?" The word play invokes misconceptions. It traditionally has been viewed as an activity for children that you give up when you grow up. Adults are working, which is more respectable than playing. Play has also been labeled as being easy. However, adult activities that might be labeled as play, such as sports, music, and hobbies, are usually challenging and difficult (Rieber, 1996).

Freud (1908) observed that adults do not play. His statement was later modified and supported by Anna Freud's (1965) suggestion that childhood play is replaced by adult work. Anna Freud begins to describe a shift from play to work during latency years. "Direct or displaced satisfaction from the play activity itself gives way increasingly to the pleasure in the finished product of the activity, a pleasure which has been described in academic psychology as pleasure in task completion, problem-solving, etc." (p. 81).

Colarusso (1993) criticizes this developmental line of play ending in childhood rather than adulthood by pointing out that adults are involved in many games such as soccer, football, cricket, chess, cards, etc. Plaut (1979) recognized that adults do not stop playing by relating Freud's view that play was "inappropriate to adulthood" to the European culture's "highly ambivalent attitude toward pleasure and an elevation of work to a dominant position in its value system" (p. 219).

Play exists in various forms from early childhood through late adulthood. Although there are great similarities between some forms of childhood play and adult play, there are also considerable differences. Children play to master experiences which are too overwhelming to master easily (Waelder, 1932) and they play to engage and master developmental tasks (Peller, 1954). Ostow (1987) suggests several reasons for play to occur in both children and adults.

First, play provides a mechanism for disengaging from frustration and disappointment in the real world by providing an illusory gratification which reduces tension and distress. Second, play also provides relief from intrapsychic conflict by offering pleasurable alternatives. But most importantly of all, particularly for the adult, "Play seems to provide, not for the unrestrained pursuit of pleasure, but rather for the exposure to realistic or realisticlike challenges, the overcoming of which relaxes tension and replaces it with pleasure. . . Play is a simulated, attenuated, and controllable reality. When the pain becomes too great, or the threat too formidable, the play can be terminated" (p. 200). Ostow recognizes that both children and adults play for the same reasons, but he describes a qualitative difference in what they are attempting to master: "whereas children's play anticipates future, more difficult tasks, adult play attempts to master simplified versions of the external world, problems of limited complexity and posing limited threats. Under certain circumstances, adults too may fear assuming new tasks or roles, and use play to help them to master their fears either realistically by practicing the new roles or unrealistically by denying them" (p. 200).

Adult development theory suggests that adults are not dealing with simplified versions of the external world or problems of limited complexity and threats. Adults confront external realities and internal issues and conflicts which are as complex and difficult to master as those in childhood (Colarusso & Nemiroff, 1981).

Childhood play is usually described as consisting of two interlocking components: conscious or unconscious fantasies or wishes and physical acts which carry these into an observable enactment. However, motoric expression may be greatly minimized or entirely absent in both childhood and adulthood, although more so in adulthood. The motoric component may be expressed by others who act for the person at play, i.e. when an individual is at a sporting event. The motoric component may also be reduced because of the nature of the game being played. Board games require very little physical action. It is important to note that although games which require strenuous physical action are less common in adulthood, motoric expression remains a component throughout life, as exemplified by the 80-year-old golfer or tennis player (Colarusso, 1993).

Play is an attempt through enactment to master traumatic stimulation, the natural state of the child (Waelder, 1932) and to resolve , in both children and adults, internal conflicts which are generated by the engagement of developmental tasks. Those at play must recognize that what is being enacted is not real.

"Play stays too close to the drives to qualify as sublimation" (Neubauer, 1987, p. 4) but in its expression of the pleasure principle it serves as an experimental way to pursue the road to reality. Because adults have a more developed sense of reality testing and an increased capacity for sublimation they play less. But when adults do play, they play for the same reasons as children: to attempt to organize and control the intrapsychic world of drives and conflicts, expressing themselves, alone and with others, in gratifying ways (Colarusso, 1993).

The maturational and developmental changes in capacities and tolerance account for some of the differences between play in childhood and adulthood. Children are less likely to sustain the capacity to pretend than adults. Thus, adults can play for longer, uninterrupted periods of time even when intense emotional states or physical exertion are involved, i.e. attending an opera or running a marathon (Colarusso, 1993).

Ostow (1987) states that play is "freedom from expectable consequences. Play is an activity that is enjoyed for the moment; after it is over, nothing that has happened is to carry over into the real world" (p. 194). Colarusso (1993) argues that this thought may be basically true but the idea that play is entirely free of expectable consequences is misleading. There is carryover into the real world through the repetition of similar themes in later play, i.e. awarding the trophy to a number one team, discussing scenes from a musical.

In her study of adult play, Hall (1977) found common themes among adult subjects interviewed about play: getting away from everyday concerns or problems; relaxation; comfort; a sense of freedom; ability to be oneself; sharing with a loved one; association with pleasant memories; and pleasant feelings. She concluded that play is an important part of the repertoire of adult human behavior. It meets certain needs not adequately met elsewhere in the adult's life and appears to be a necessary part of maintaining good mental health. Halmo (1985) described play as being influential in reducing stress, providing perspective, enhancing communication in relationships, and encouraging success at work.

Considering success at work through play, Rieber (1996) suggests that there is risk attached to suggesting that an adult is at play. The misconception that the activity of play is irrelevant or inconsequential to either formal or informal learning keeps adults away from play. Visser (1996) observes that children learn using all senses but as we grow up adults begin to learn by memorization using linguistic and logical mental capabilities. She recommends that as trainers of adults, "whole brain" learning should be practiced using multi-sensory training.

It has been suggested by several researchers (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Goldstein, 1986; Noe, 1986; Noe & Schmitt, 1986) that learning during training is a function of ability plus motivation. Regardless of ability levels, trainees must be motivated if training is to be successful (Clark, et al., 1993). Csikszentmihalyi's Flow Theory of Optimal Experience has been described

as "the process of optimal experience" achieved when a sufficiently motivated person perceives a balance between his skills and the challenge of learning.

The name flow theory is derived from the description of extreme happiness and satisfaction expressed by many adults. Being engaged and absorbed in an activity the person seems to "flow" along in a spontaneous and almost automatic manner. It has been summarized as being "carried by the flow" of the activity (Rieber, 1996). Csikszentmihalyi (1990) defines flow as "the state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter; the experience is so enjoyable that people will do it even at great cost, for the sheer sake of doing it" (p. 4). Adding play to training programs in the workplace has the potential to enable individuals to make quantum leaps in performance while experiencing intense flow states.

Flow is not necessarily easy to achieve. It is contingent upon certain conditions and skills. Rieber (1996) notes that for flow to be experienced a person must have the ability to focus attention, to concentrate without distraction. Csikszentmihalyi places great emphasis on attention by defining it as "psychic energy" because it acts as the "fuel" for the rest of consciousness. When in the flow state, irrelevant thoughts and perceptions are screened out and the learner 's attention is focused entirely on the interaction. Flow thus involves a merging of actions and awareness, with concentration so intense there is little attention left over to consider anything else (Hoffman & Novak, 1995).

Psychological growth is a result of flow because the individual becomes more complex or elaborate. Differentiation and integration are the psychological mechanisms that account for growth. Differentiation is described as the need for the individual to remain unique from others. Integration is depicted as the need to feel connected to other people and other ideas (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

Activities that provide enjoyment, not mere pleasure, produce flow. Enjoyment results when an activity meets one of more of the following eight components: 1) our knowledge or skill is just right for coping with the demands of a situation, and when compared to the entirety of daily life the demands are above average, the motivational quality of the experience improves noticeably, 2) we are able to concentrate on what we are doing, 3 & 4) we can be so involved because what we are doing has relatively clear goals and provides rather consistent and unambiguous feedback as to whether one is reaching the goals, 5) involvement removes from awareness, at least temporarily, the worries and frustrations of everyday life, 6) we are not worried about losing control, 7) all feeling of self-consciousness disappear, and 8) our sense of the duration of time is altered.

In order to experience flow the person must be able to match challenge with their current skill or ability level, optimizing challenge. Anxiety will result if the person' s skill is too low and the challenge is too high. Boredom will occur if the challenge is too low and the skill to high. Only when boredom and anxiety are avoided is flow possible.

Csikszentmihalyi's original model (1977) specified that flow occurred when a person perceived an equal match between skill and challenge, both when skill and challenge were equally high and when skill and challenge were equally low. More recent reformulations (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1988; Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989) specify that "flow results from experience contexts characterized by a match between challenge and skills only when both challenge and skills exceed the level that is typical for the day to day experience of the individual" (Ellis, Voelkl, & Morris, 1994). Congruent skills and challenges that lie below the individual's typical level are said to result in an "apathy" state (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1988).

People move in and out of flow as a function of control, content and motivational characteristics. Investigating flow in Internet consumers, Hoffman and Novak (1995) propose two distinct categories of flow, goal-directed and experiential. Both categories involve congruent skill and challenges but differ in terms of orientation, involvement, motivation, search and benefits.

Designing and delivering training that will invoke the state of flow requires creativity by the educator. Having over sixty definitions, creativity is difficult to define. Torrance (1988) says that "Creativity defies precise definition." Having started in psychology, early research in

creativity focused on the creative personality. However, the scope of creativity research has widened to include: the person that is creative, the product of creating, the process of creating, and the place or press (environment) of creating (Nagasundaram & Bostrom, 1993).

The personality of the creative achiever has been described as forceful and enduring (Helson, Roberts & Agronick, 1995). Cox (1926) concluded that "Youth who achieve eminence are characterized not only by intellectual traits but also persistence of motive and effort, confidence in their abilities and great strength or force of character" (p. 218).

A major source of evidence for the consistency and generality of the creative personality is the fact that samples of creative individuals varying in age and working in different fields have been found to share common characteristics (Barron, 1965; Cattell & Butcher, 1970). Although the characteristics have been set forth somewhat differently by each investigator, similar cognitive and motivational attributes recur. MacKinnon (1960) described creative individuals as open to experience, sharing a common pattern of interests. He also attributed the characteristics of independent judgment, assertiveness, and a persistent high level of energy in their work to creative persons.

Nagasundaram and Bostrom (1993) point out that most creativity measuring instruments measure the individual's "creativity level" based on some criteria and all individuals are ranked on a scale. Higher scoring individuals are deemed "more creative" than others receiving lower scores. This approach is problematic when multiple (independent) criteria exist for measuring individuals' creativity. It is difficult to determine the creativity level of an individual who scores high on one instrument but low on another.

Kirton and associates (1976, 1987, 1989) have taken a radically different approach to researching creativity. Viewing creativity as a cognitive style, Kirton asserts that individuals have different "preferred" cognitive creativity styles which are manifest in their varied approaches to formulating and solving problems. Two individuals could be equally creative, but in different ways. In studies replicated in a dozen countries including the US, UK, Australia and countries in Asia and Europe, it has consistently been found that preferred creativity style is a construct distinct from but related to creativity level, which is the more conventional approach to measuring creativity. Kirton identifies two principal preferred creativity styles: adaption and innovation.

> "Adaption is the characteristic behavior of individuals who when confronted with a problem, turn to conventional rules, practices and perceptions of the group to which they belong. . .and derive their ideas towards the solution of the problem from these established procedures. When there is no ready made answer provided by the repertoire of conventional responses, then the adaptor will seek to adapt or stretch a conventional response until it can be used in the solution of the problem.
>
> "Innovation is the characteristic behavior of individuals who, when confronted with a problem, attempt to reorganize or restructure the problem, and to approach it in a new light, free from any of the customary perceptions or presuppositions which would be the conventional starting-point for its solution. Innovators thus produce answers which are less predictable and thereby sometimes less acceptable to the group" (Kirton, 1987, p. 283-284).

Adaptors prefer to do thing better. Innovators prefer doing things differently. Kirton (1987) lists a set of individual traits on which adaptors and innovators tend to differ. Individuals may test to have completely different creativity styles yet be considered equally creative while producing means on either side of the Kirton scale measures. Kirton emphasizes that neither style is necessarily superior to the other, conceptualizing creativity with less originality. While innovators are constantly exploring and creating new opportunities, adaptors are insuring that those are implemented and monitored efficiently.

Lieberman (1977) notes that playfulness is intertwined with imagination and creativity. It is noted that behavior manifests itself at an early age in the play of the young child and

becomes personality traits of the player later in life. A sense of humor, as a component of playfulness, may contribute to the type of imaginative processes that result in creative products.

Studying creativity, intelligence and vocational interests (Paramesh & Narayanan, 1976) found that creativity and intelligence had a significant effect on business, executive, persuasive, linguistic, artistic and musical vocational interests. Vocational interests that creativity significantly effected were persuasive, linguistic, artistic, and musical interests. Intelligence had a significant effect only on the artistic interest. Csikszentmihalyi (1988) first observed the "flow experience," which he considered a major gratification of creative work, in artists. The role of intensive practice in expert performance (Ericsson & Charness, 1994) suggests that the strength and endurance of motivation is a major factor in creative accomplishment. Helson, Roberts, and Agronick (1995) found that creative characteristics and achievements endure across the life span with fluctuations in creative temperament during different periods of life.

It has been recognized that motivation to learn is critical for training effectiveness but this variable has largely been a neglected variable in training (Clark, Dobbins, & Ladd, 1993). Without motivation to learn, the most sophicated training program cannot be effective (Noe, 1986). Intrinsic motivation has been found to be linked to playfulness (Webster, et al., 1993; Csikszentimahalyi, 1990).

Educators and trainers must understand the motivation and need to play in the workplace. In these hectic and stressful times, play can provide a much needed relief to employees. Trainers must recognize the importance of incorporating play into educational programs. The creativity of trainers themselves may also lend useful information to help individuals identify their creativity style and to better utilize play in their training in order to enhance flow state.

## Future Research Agenda

To help human resource scholars, more research needs to focus on the nature of play that is used in training and development. The importance of flow, evoked during learning, and connection with transfer of training needs to be explored to help trainers and program planners select instructional methods which induce flow states. Instructional methods likely to induce flow states must be identified. Evaluation of learning should also be considered to determine how learners are impacted by the use of play in the classroom. With increasing emphasis on building knowledge, developing creative companies () and learning organizations (Watkins and Marsick, 1993), as a new crucial role for human resource developers in our use of training strategies while invoking creativity, are more important than ever.

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